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ABSTRACT

This report presents five commonly held stereotypes about children in the United States and analyzes their validity through discussion of data related to each. These stereotypes include: (1) births to unmarried women have increased tremendously mostly because of women of color; (2) child poverty is a problem in the inner city, not in the suburbs or rural areas; (3) the two-parent family is a thing of the past, with few children living with both parents; (4) the majority of children whose mothers receive welfare live with many siblings, and their mothers deliberately have babies to get more welfare money; and (5) most of the babies born today have parents of different races. Relevant demographic data is used to show why each of these stereotypes is invalid. Two appendices provide additional stereotypes and a demographic profile of children in the Unites States. A list of selected publications from the Center for Demographic Policy of the Institute for Educational Leadership is included. Contains 18 references. (MDM)

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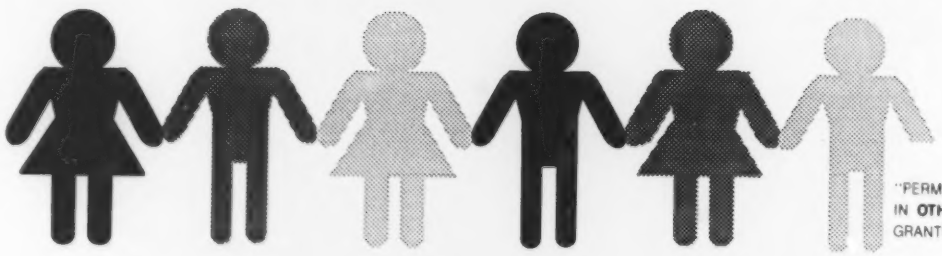

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A Demographic Look At Children in the United States

By
Janice Hamilton Outtz

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Janice Hamilton Outtz

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SHATTERING *Stereotypes*

A Demographic Look At Children in the United States

by

Janice Hamilton Outtz

Center for Demographic Policy
The Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc.

November 1994

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SHATTERING *Stereotypes*

A Demographic Look At Children in the United States

Introduction

Our image of America's children is often guided by stereotypes and myths. We talk a lot about children growing up in the Nineties, and about how different things are today than they were 20 or even 10 years ago. But what we actually know about the demographics of children -- how they live, where they live and the conditions under which they live -- is very different for each of us.

We all have our own stereotypes of what we *think* about certain individuals or groups. Many stereotypes have some element of truth, but most are distorted in one way or another. Belief in stereotypes can cause great harm, particularly, if policies are designed and programs are implemented based on those beliefs.

After establishing the demographic changes with children, this report examines a few of the commonly articulated stereotypes and myths about children in the United States. Our goal is to get to the truth behind the stereotypes.

The report presents five of today's common stereotypes and analyzes their validity through discussion of data related to each stereotype. These five were chosen from the many others because they are among the most commonly held and have a tremendous impact on policy decisions.

In an effort to focus on the reality of how children are growing up in this country, the report includes a sample list of "stereotypes and myths" (see Appendix I) for use in discussion groups in communities. Many people will be surprised by some of the information.

Readers are encouraged to examine the facts behind the stereotypes and myths for their communities and use the information as the basis for local discussions, program development, and policy decisions. Only then can we focus more on reality rather than sound-bite stereotypes. Only then can we move beyond simplistic answers to the complex problems related to our children.

Finally, the report includes a demographic profile of America's children (see Appendix II) for use in comparing data from local communities with national data. It is our belief that the best way to help our children is to know the facts concerning their status.

The Changing Demographics of Children -- An Overview

The nation's population increased by almost 10 percent in the last decade, but the growth occurred in the adult population. The number of children decreased slightly between 1980 and 1990, from 63.8 million to 63.6 million. Consequently, in 1980,

children[1] constituted 28 percent of the total population, but only 26 percent in 1990. The rapid growth of the elderly proportion of the U.S. population, along with the declining proportion of the child population, have the potential to pit unfavorably child-related investments such as schools and child care against support for the elderly. Obviously, our society needs both groups to thrive and dysfunctional competition among age groups is not and will never be to anyone's benefit.

The States

Although the total number of children decreased slightly between 1980 and 1990, there were dramatic demographic changes within the nation's child population. One notable change was related to the states in which children live. Thirty-three of the 50 states in the U.S. and the District of Columbia had declines in the child population because many residents moved to other states. Many of the states losing the most children were states that suffered economic declines as well as out-migration. New York, with more than 400,000 fewer children by 1990, had the largest loss. Other states with large losses were Pennsylvania (more than 300,000 fewer children), Illinois (297,000 fewer), and Ohio (295,000 fewer).

The states with the largest population growth overall (California, Florida and Texas) also had increases in the child population. Other states with substantial increases in the child population included: Alaska, Arizona, Nevada and Utah.

The Cities

Nearly half of the 75 largest U.S. cities actually had fewer children in 1990 than in 1980. The largest losses, according to *American Demographics* magazine (February 1992), were: Chicago (130,000 fewer); New York City (79,000 fewer children), Philadelphia (58,000 fewer), and Detroit (62,000 fewer). These losses were due at least in part because many families moved from

[1]Throughout this report children refers to the population under age 18, unless otherwise noted.

the central cities to nearby suburbs but still remained in the metropolitan areas.

Racial and Ethnic Composition

The racial and ethnic[2] composition of the U.S. child population also changed. In 1990, there were 63.6 million children under the age of 18 living in the U.S.; 31 percent were minority. In 1980, minority children constituted 26 percent of the child population. Specifically, according to the Population Reference Bureau (PRB), in 1990, 14.6 percent of the child population were African American; and 11.7 percent were of Hispanic origin (of any race). Children of other races made up four percent of all children in the U.S. By 2000, we will see even more diversity among children. It is estimated that 36 percent of all children in the U.S. are expected to be minority -- 15 percent non-Hispanic African American; 15 percent Hispanic; and six percent children of other races, according to Census Bureau projections.

Forecasters also predict that by about 2010 Hispanics will become the largest minority group in the U.S. replacing African Americans, and, by mid-decade of the next century, the U.S. will become *majority minority*. The Census Bureau projects that by 2010, seven states (Hawaii, New Mexico, Texas, California, Florida, New York and Louisiana) and the District of Columbia will have a majority minority child population, and 19 states will have a child population that is at least one-fourth minority (African American, Hispanic, Asian or other minority). In all, more than half the states will have at least a one-fourth minority child population.

The fact that the number of children as a percent of the total U.S. population is decreasing while the number of minority children is increasing is an important aspect of the changing demographics of children. Today's children are tomorrow's adults -- political leaders, doctors, nurses, teachers, parents, and entry-level workers.

---

[2]Race and ethnicity are self-identification classifications reported by the Census Bureau. Ethnicity refers to origin or descent. Persons of Hispanic origin are those who indicate that their origin is Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American or some other Hispanic origin. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

A decline in the number of children has already produced fewer entry-level workers in many areas throughout the nation; a continuous decline could produce fewer of everything. The United States no longer has the luxury of taking care of only the "best and brightest" and neglecting the rest. We need to develop the bodies, minds and spirits of all of our children regardless of race and ethnicity so they will become strong, caring and productive citizens.

When we look at the condition of children in the United States and begin to make policies and to plan programs on their behalf, we cannot afford to look at just part of the picture. It is imperative that we see the whole picture-- children and families on every social and economic level. Sometimes, however, the whole picture is obscured by widely accepted stereotypes.

Stereotype - *a fixed or conventional notion or conception, as of a person, group, idea, etc., held by a number of people, and allowing for no individuality, critical judgment, etc.*

Myth - *any fictitious story, or unscientific account, theory or belief, etc.*

Webster's New World Dictionary

Shattering Stereotypes About Children

Unfortunately, much of our information about people -- how and where they live, under what conditions and, even, how they act -- comes from a "fixed or conventional notion" that is derived from the media. When we see images repeated often enough, it is easy to start to believe them; sometimes the distorted images are subliminal.

The successful Disney movie, *The Lion King*, is a good example. A letter to the editor of *The Washington Post*, (August 10, 1994) said, "I recently took my not perfect but wise 5-year-old to see *The Lion King*. He asked me, 'Mommy, why does Scar have to be so dark, so skinny and so mean? Isn't he Mufasa's brother [bright yellow, big and brave]?' I had to wonder myself...[W]e also watched as Scar and the hyenas, who looked and sounded black stripped the land bare. It dawned on me that this is how minorities are subliminally portrayed in the media, and now this mental picture has been ingrained into society. Thus, not many parents or children were aware of the message."

Our discussions as well as our beliefs are sometimes shaped by stereotypes and myths, not by the facts. Diversity, children having children, working mothers, changes in family composition, poverty, drugs and violence are just a few of the issues that constantly arise

when we talk about children growing up in the Nineties. Our understanding of these issues, and of the issues presented on the following pages, are not always shaped by solid information.

Stereotype No. 1:
Births to unmarried women have increased tremendously, but mostly because of women of color.

It is true that the number of births to unmarried women has increased tremendously, but it is <u>not</u> because of women of color. Between 1970 and 1990, the number of births to unmarried women increased by nearly 800,000. Sixty-four percent of the increase was due to births to <u>white</u> women.

In 1970, there were 398,700 babies born to unmarried[3] women. By 1980, that number had more than doubled to 665,747 (a 67 percent increase) and by 1990 there were 1.2 million babies born to unmarried women (a 75 percent increase over 1980). In 1970, 11 percent of all births in the U.S. were to unmarried women. By 1990, that percentage had more than doubled to 28 percent of all births. In 1990, 57.5 percent of all births to unmarried women were to white women.

The number of births to unmarried white women contributed substantially to the increase in the number of births outside of wedlock. Births to unmarried white women constituted 500,000 (65 percent) of the total increase of 767,000 babies born to unmarried women between 1970 and 1990. The number of babies born to

[3]Unmarried women defined as: never married, widowed and divorced of any age.

unmarried women of color increased over the 20-year period also but at a much lower rate overall than the rate of increase for white women.

Between 1970 and 1980, the number of births to unmarried white women increased by 83 percent, from 175,000 to over 320,000(see Table 1). The number of births to unmarried women of

Table 1
Births to Unmarried Women by Race, U.S. 1970, 1980 and 1990

	1970	1980	1970-1980 Percent Change	1990	1980-1990 Percent Change
Total Births	3,731,386	3,612,258	-3.2	4,158,212	15.1
To Unmarried Women	398,700	665,747	67.0	1,165,384	75.0
As a % of all births	10.7	18.4		28.0	
To **white** unmarried women	175,100	320,063	82.8	669,698	109.2
As a % of all births to unmarried women	43.9	48.1		57.5	
To **non-white** unmarried women	223,600	345,684	54.6	495,686	43.4
As a % of all births to unmarried women	56.1	51.9		42.5	

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "*Monthly Vital Statistics Report*," (for the years shown).

color increased from 224,000 to 346,000 during that same time period (a 55 percent increase). Between 1980 and 1990, the number of births to unmarried white women more than doubled, an increase of 109 percent. The number of births to women of color, on the other hand, increased 43 percent in the last decade. By 1990, there were nearly 175,000 **more** babies born to unmarried white mothers than babies born to women of color (see Figure 1).

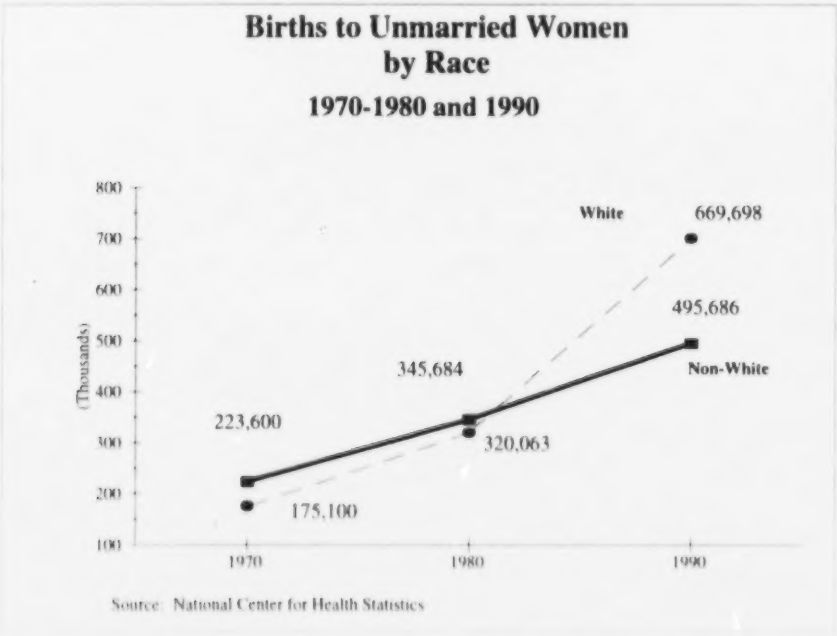

Figure 1

More than half of all births to unmarried mothers in 1970 were to women of color, but by 1990 however, it was unmarried white women who made up more than half (57 percent) of all births to unmarried women. During this period, there was an increased acceptance of births outside of marriage, particularly among white women.

Both media coverage and research reports have documented the steady increase in the number of births to teens, particularly births to nonwhite teens. In the last 10 years, there has also been an increase in research data and discussions about women who have

delayed marriage and childbearing, and who, after they reach age 30 or older, decide to have a baby. Our questions then, are: was it just the sexual revolution that accounted for this tremendous increase in births to unmarried women? Did births to unmarried teen mothers account for the increase in the number of births to unmarried women? Or, was it births to older unmarried women and births to unmarried women of color?

Data from the National Center for Health Statistics show that the number of births to unmarried teens has been increasing steadily, but so has the number of births to older women. In 1970, more than half of all births to unmarried mothers were to teen mothers. While the number of births has increased steadily since 1970, teen births as a percentage of all unmarried births has decreased from 50 percent of all births in 1970 to 31 percent in 1990 (see Figure 2, below). As was true with the number of births to unmarried mothers generally, by 1990, there were more births to unmarried *white* teens than there were to nonwhite teens (204,053 and 156,592, respectively).

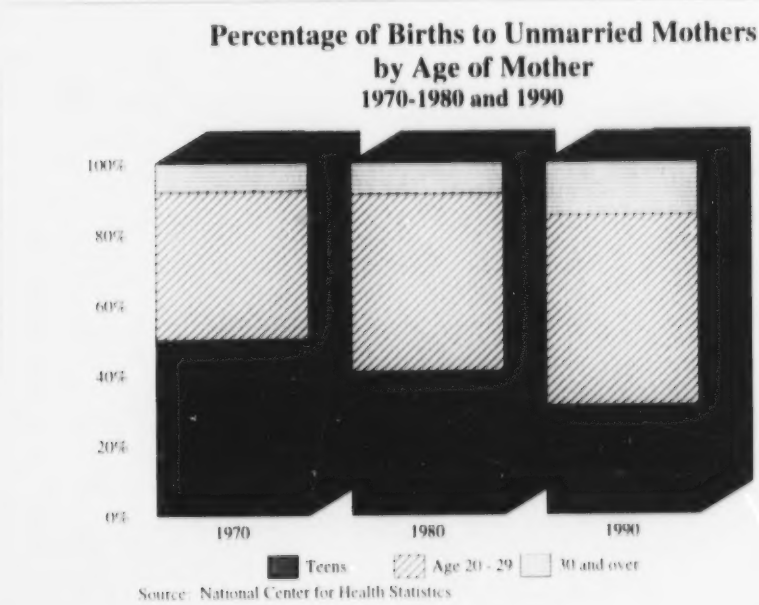

Figure 2

Table 2
Births to Unmarried Women by Age and Race of Mother, U.S. 1970, 1980 and 1990

	1970	1980	1970-1980 Change	1990	1980-1990 Change
Total Births to Unmarried Women	398,700	665,747	67.0	1,165,384	75.0
Teens (under age 20)	**199,900**	**271,801**	**36.0**	**360,645**	**32.7**
White	81,800	131,128	60.3	204,053	55.6
Nonwhite	118,100	140,673	19.1	156,592	11.3
Age 20 - 29	**167,300**	**336,848**	**101.3**	**638,864**	**89.7**
White	80,100	159,726	99.4	364,496	128.2
Nonwhite	87,200	177,122	103.1	269,368	52.1
Age 30 and over	**31,500**	**57,098**	**81.3**	**170,875**	**199.3**
White	13,100	29,209	123.0	101,149	246.3
Nonwhite	18,400	27,889	51.6	69,726	150.0

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, *Monthly Vital Statistics Report,"* (for the years shown).

Unmarried women, age 20 to 29, contributed most to the increase in the number of babies born outside of marriage, making up 55 percent of all births to unmarried women in 1990. The increase in the number of births to this age group has been phenomenal in the last 20 years for both white and nonwhite women. Between 1970 and 1980, the increase in the number of births to unmarried white women was almost 100 percent. The increase for unmarried nonwhite women was 103 percent. Between 1980 and 1990, the increase in the number of births to unmarried nonwhite women slowed to 52 percent while the increase to white women was 128 percent (see Table 2, above).

Noteworthy also is the increase in the number of babies born to unmarried women age 30 and over. In 1970, this group made up just eight percent of all births to unmarried women, with just over 30,000 births. By 1990, babies born to these baby boom women made up 15 percent of all births, with over 170,000 births. Both white and nonwhite women contributed to this increase. In the last 10 years, the number of babies born to unmarried, nonwhite women and unmarried, white women age 30 and over tripled.

Thus far, the discussion has centered around the *number* of babies born to unmarried women. However, the *birth rate*[4] also contributes to the stereotype about babies born to unmarried women of color. Simply put, nonwhite women have more babies than white women, but we have to remember that there are more white women than nonwhite.

The birth rate in 1990 for unmarried, nonwhite women age 15 to 44 was nearly two and one-half times higher than the rate for unmarried, white women. In 1970, it was six and one-half times higher. For every 1,000 unmarried, nonwhite women between the ages of 15 and 44, 79.7 babies were born in 1990 compared to 32.9 babies born for every 1,000 white women. Birth rates alone produce a very different picture from the actual numbers (see Table 3).

Table 3
Birth Rates* for Unmarried Women by Race 1970, 1980 and 1990

	White	Nonwhite
1970	13.9	89.9
1980	17.6	77.2
1990	32.9	79.7

*Birth rates are the number of live births to unmarried women age 15 to 44 years per 1,000 unmarried women age 15 to 44. Unmarried women includes: never married, divorced, and widowed.

Source: NCES, *Youth Indicators, 1993.*

Few social issues have attracted as much attention as births outside of marriage, especially to teen mothers. This is certainly

[4]The birth rate for unmarried women is the number of live births to unmarried women per 1,000 unmarried women.

understandable. Children born to unmarried teen mothers often do not have a decent start in life; many teen mothers had mothers who were also teens.

The Children's Defense Fund estimates that it takes about $533 a month to care for a child. Not many teenagers are likely to have that much money. Since many are also children of teen parents themselves, they likely cannot count on much assistance from their parents.

Research has shown that these babies are more likely to grow up poor, end up on welfare and be at high risk academically and physically. But the data show that an increasing number of babies born outside of marriage are born to adult women. Many of these women delayed marriage and child bearing for reasons having to do with college and careers. Some of these babies may grow up in at-risk environments, but many will not.

It is important to understand the facts behind this stereotype so assistance can be provided to those who need it most, and not provided to those thought in need because of unfounded beliefs. Both white and nonwhite teens need help to avoid becoming pregnant in the first place. White and nonwhite teens often need help in caring for their babies both during pregnancy and after they are born. If all wisdom and programs are geared toward keeping unmarried, *nonwhite* teens from getting pregnant, we will miss the opportunity to help the *more than 200,000 unmarried, white teens* who have babies. We also need to increase our understanding about the needs of the more than 600,000 babies born to young (age 20-29) unmarried white and nonwhite women.

The United States needs all of its children to become productive citizens -- including those born outside of marriage. When society acts as if a problem is particular only to a certain group, the response is often different than when the problem affects all groups. Policies which support programs for children must include children born to unmarried mothers, regardless of race. These policies must also include programs to break the cycle of poverty and to deal with the other factors that put children at risk. We do not have any children to spare.

Stereotype No. 2:
Child poverty is a problem in the inner city, not in the suburbs or in rural areas.

It is true that child poverty is most concentrated in the inner cities. It is also true that child poverty is increasingly a problem in both the suburbs and rural areas: 6.4 million poor children lived in inner cities in 1992; 4.6 million lived in suburbs; and 3.6 million lived in rural areas.

In 1992, 44 percent of the 14.6 million poor children in the U.S. lived in the inner city, according to data from the Census Bureau (see Figure 3, next page). Inner city poor children comprise nearly one of every three children in the nation's inner cities. Furthermore, the number of poor children in inner cities has been gradually increasing for some time, and, unless major changes occur in the U.S. economy and in the job structure in our inner cities, urban poverty is likely to continue to increase.

Just as the number of poor children in urban areas has been increasing, so too, has the number of poor children in suburban and rural[5] areas. In 1992, nearly one-third of all poor children lived

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[5]"Outside the metropolitan area" and rural are used synonymously. According to the Census Bureau, the population not classified as urban (a central city and suburbs with a population of 50,000 or more, or places of 2,500 or more persons outside of the urbanized areas) constitutes the rural population. It should be noted however, that rural (meaning low density) areas, is not equivalent to what we generally think: rural is equated with farms. Many farmland owners don't farm. Of the 2,277 counties outside metro areas, only 510 have farms. For a demographic look at the changes in the rural youth population, see IEL's Center for Demographic Policy report, "The Invisible Poor: Rural Youth in America," by Harold Hodgkinson.

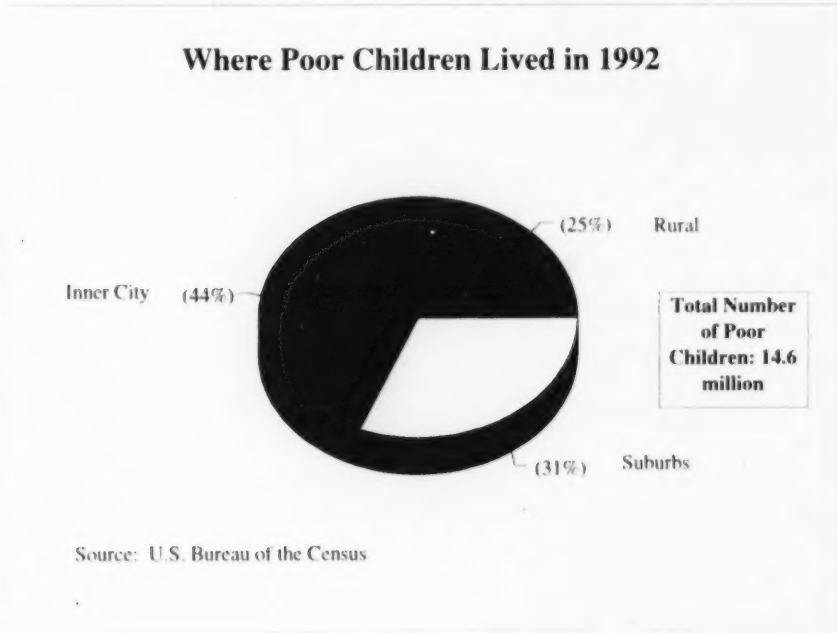

Figure 3

in suburban areas. Suburban poor children comprise about 14 percent of all children living in the suburbs. Poverty in suburban areas increased in a manner similar to poverty in central cities (Scarborough,1992) but until recently, changes in suburban poverty were not detectable from year to year.

NOTE: Poverty is officially measured by comparing an individual's or family's pretax cash income to a set of federally established dollar amounts, called poverty thresholds.

The poverty thresholds for 1992, according to the Census Bureau, are $11,186 for a three-person family and $14,335 for a four-person family. The poverty thresholds are updated each year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index or inflation.

Since 1990, however, the number of poor children living in the suburbs has increased at a higher rate than the rate for inner cities (11.6 percent and 8.5 percent, respectively). Over the last 20 years, the largest rate of increase in child poverty has been in the suburbs, increasingly over 75 percent, according to the Center on Hunger,

Poverty and Nutrition Policy (1994). Child poverty in the inner city increased by 60 percent during this same time period.

The child poverty rate for rural areas (23.5 percent) was significantly higher than the child poverty rate for the suburbs (14.4 percent). There were 3.6 million poor children living in rural areas in 1992 (see Table 4), and the number of poor children in rural areas keeps growing. Since the early Seventies, child poverty in rural areas has increased by 36 percent.

Between 1980 and 1990, the number of poor, school-age children in rural areas increased by 53,000 to 2.19 million children while the total number of children living in rural areas decreased. This increase in poor children in rural areas and decrease in the total number of children in rural areas mirrored the national decline in the total number of children and the growth in the number of poor children. According to a 1994 report from the U.S. General Accounting Office, the increase in the number of poor, rural, school-age children included a series of other risk factors, e.g. a 26 percent increase in the number of single-parent families and a continued high percentage of parents with low educational levels. This is consistent with findings from an earlier study by the National Rural Development Institute (1989) which found that rural children were "more likely than city or suburban kids to face failure because of crime, substance abuse, early sexual activity and

Table 4
Children in Poverty in the United States by Residence, 1992
(numbers in thousands)

	Total Children	In Poverty: Number	In Poverty: Percent*
Total	66,834	14,614	21.9
Inner City	19,734	6,411	32.5
Rural	15,453	3,638	23.5
Suburb	31,647	4,568	14.4

*The proportion of all children in that area that are poor.
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, "*Poverty in the U.S., 1992.*"

childbearing, parental neglect, and other factors than city or suburban kids."

Regardless of where poor children live -- in the city, the suburbs, or in rural areas -- the data also show that *poverty rates* for nonwhite children are consistently higher than those for white children, although the actual number of poor, white children is nearly twice the number of poor, African American children and almost three times the number of poor, Hispanic children (see Table 5, next page). In 1992, nearly half -- 47 percent of all African American children lived in poverty. The poverty rate for white children during that same time period was 16.9 percent -- less than one-fifth -- and the poverty rate for Hispanic children was 40 percent.

Child poverty has continued to increase in spite of national economic growth during the 1980s. The Center on Hunger, Poverty and Nutrition Policy forecasts that if current trends continue, "America's children may be headed for problems of extraordinary proportions" (p. 11). By 2010, the Center forecast, that an additional 2.7 million children will be living in poverty in inner cities; about 3.2 million more poor children will be living in the suburbs; and 3.7 million more poor children will be living in rural areas.

Over the long term, the shift toward more single parenting has been a big contributor to child poverty. In 1970, 46 percent of poor children were in families headed by single mothers; by 1992, this number had increased to 60 percent. The situation was much worse for African American children.

Table 5
Number and Percent of Children in Poverty by Race and Ethnicity 1980, 1990 and 1992
(numbers in thousands)

	1980	1990	1992
African American	3,961 42.3%	4,550 44.8%	4,938 46.6%
Hispanic*	1,749 33.2%	2,865 38.4%	3,116 39.9%
White	7,181 13.9%	8,232 15.9%	8,995 16.9%
Total**	11,543 18.3%	13,431 20.6%	14,617 21.9%

*Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
**Includes other races not shown separately.
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, *Poverty in the U.S., 1992."*

In 1992, more than 80 percent of all poor African American children lived in families headed by single women. At the same time, the median income for these families was $11,956, about $8,200 less than the median income for single, white women who maintain their own families, according to the Census Bureau.

Poverty *rates* for nonwhite children are consistently higher than the rates for white children, although there are more poor, white children than nonwhite.

The differences between the incomes of single women and husband-wife families, regardless of race, are great. The median income of families maintained by a single mother in 1992 was $17,192 compared to $42,064 for husband-wife families. A portion of this difference is related to the earnings inequalities between women and men. The fact that many women who head their own families are young and less educated negatively impacts their

opportunities to find a job that pays enough to keep them above the poverty level.

There are many commonly held stereotypes and myths about poor people in the U.S. in addition to this one. ***Many people believe that all poor people are alike. They are stereotyped as persons of color who are uneducated, do not work, and do not want to work.***

In 1992, **many of the poor families** in the U.S.:

- were white (65 percent of all poor families);
- have heads of households with a high school education (56 percent of all poor heads of families age 25 years and older); and
- work (40 percent of all poor persons age 16 and over).

These facts rarely receive adequate attention and certainly not enough attention to dispel the myths about the population in poverty in the United States.

Nothing is a greater deterrent to children realizing their full potential than poverty. The link between poverty and developmental risk has been documented numerous times. Yet, child poverty rates continue to rise; from 15 percent of all children in 1970 to a startling 22 percent in 1992.

The president of the Urban Institute writes: "If poor children are to make it in today's world, they and their parents must try harder than better-off Americans simply because poverty magnifies the effects of any other barriers to full achievement of human potential."

The rise in child poverty puts a large proportion of tomorrow's work force at increased risk of serious health problems, school dropout, and social isolation. Since it is not likely that our society can survive in arenas of increased business competition and more global economies without a strong workforce, (in the words of the

Children's Defense Fund) we must "join the movement to leave no child behind." Yet, after many recent reports which document the crisis surrounding America's children, most Americans have not "joined the movement." Perhaps it is because it is getting harder and harder to convince people who do not have children, that leaving no child behind is a worthwhile goal from which we all benefit. Mitigating or eliminating child poverty in the U.S. would go a long way toward fixing our society's increasingly serious, social problems.

Stereotype No. 3:
The two-parent family is a thing of the past. Few children in the U.S. live with both parents.

It is not true that the two-parent family is a thing of the past. Nearly three-fourths of all children in the U.S. live with two parents.

In 1992, 71 percent of all children lived with two parents. This is, however, a substantial decrease from the 85 percent who lived with two parents in 1970 (see Figure 4, next page). Increases in divorce, separation, and births to unmarried women have been responsible for this shift in the living arrangements of children.

It has become more common in the last twenty years for children to live with just one parent, and, if current trends continue, the Population Reference Bureau predicts that an even higher proportion of children will live with just one parent. "Forty-two percent of white children and 86 percent of African American children will spend at least some of their childhood with a single parent" (as cited in *American Demographics,* September 1990).

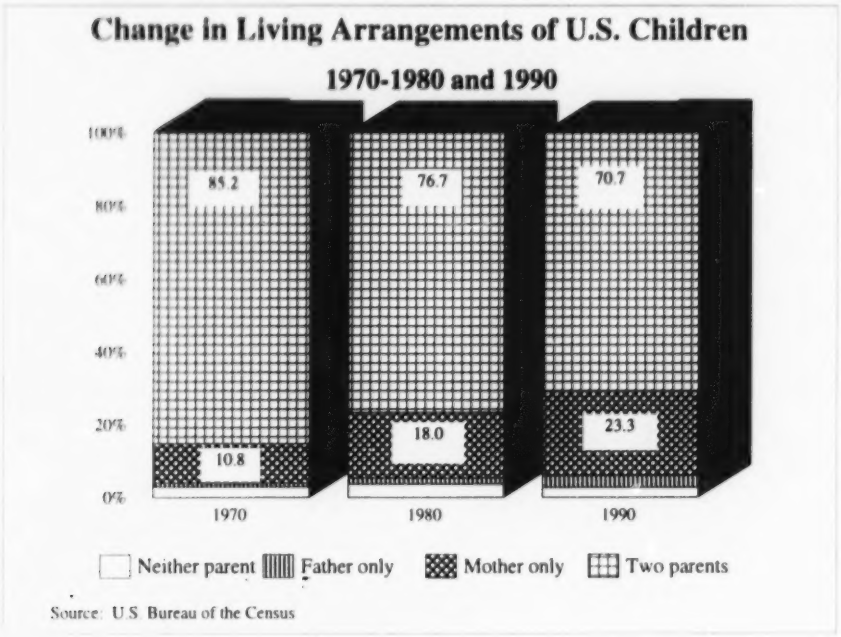

Figure 4

Between 1970 and 1992, the proportion of children living with one parent increased from 12 percent to 27 percent, according to data from the Census Bureau. While most of the children living with one parent lived with their mother only, an increasing proportion lived with their father only. In 1970, nine percent of all children in single-parent families lived with their father. By 1992, it was 12 percent. This compares to 88 percent of all children in single-parent families who currently live with their mothers.

The two-parent family was not very common among African American children in 1992. Just 36 percent of all African American children lived with two parents and nearly six of every ten lived with just one parent in 1992. In 1970, nearly six of ten children lived with both parents. The proportion of African American children (57 percent) living with one parent in 1992 was higher than either white (21 percent) or Hispanic (32 percent) children (see Table 6, next page).

Table 6
Change in the Living Arrangements of Children by Race and Ethnicity 1970 and 1992
(numbers in thousands)

	1970		1992	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total Children	**69,162**	**100.0**	**65,965**	**100.0**
Living with:				
Two parents	58,939	85.2	46,638	70.7
Mother only	7,452	10.8	15,396	23.3
Father only	748	1.1	2,182	3.3
Neither parent	2,024	2.9	1,749	2.6
White, Total	**58,790**	**100.0**	**52,493**	**100.0**
Living with:				
Two parents	52,624	89.5	40,635	77.4
Mother only	4,581	7.8	9,250	17.6
Father only	528	0.9	1,721	3.3
Neither parent	1,058	1.8	886	1.7
African American, Total	**9,422**	**100.0**	**10,427**	**100.0**
Living with:				
Two parents	5,508	58.5	3,714	35.6
Mother only	2,783	29.5	5,607	53.8
Father only	213	2.3	327	3.1
Neither parent	917	9.7	779	7.5

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, *Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1992.*

The data on living arrangements from the Census Bureau's report point out some interesting comparisons between children in two-parent families and children in one-parent families. These differences have much to do with the child's well-being. For example, of the 46.6 million children living with two parents in 1992, 26 percent lived with a parent who had a Bachelor's degree or higher; 85 percent had an employed parent; 53 percent had a family income of $40,000 or more, and 72 percent owned or were buying their own home.

Children living with their mothers only are five times more likely to be living below the poverty level than children living in two-parent families.

On the other hand, of the 15.4 million children living with their mother only in 1992, just eight percent lived with a mother who had a Bachelor's degree or higher; 52 percent had working mothers; nine percent had a family income of $40,000 or higher; and 32 percent owned or were buying their own homes. The incidence of poverty is one of the most startling difference between children living with two parents and children living with their mother only. Children living with their mother only were five times more likely to be poor in 1992 than children living with two parents (53 percent and 10 percent, respectively).

When we think of children living in a traditional family, we generally assume that these children are living in what the Census Bureau refers to as a "traditional nuclear family -- a unit in which both parents are present and all children in the household are biological offspring of those parents and no other persons are present." Today, the 72 percent of America's children living with two parents may also have others living with them. For half of the nation's children (32 million), the Census Bureau's definition of a traditional nuclear family is not the case. These children live in families which may include a single parent, a stepparent, a grandparent, another relative, or a non-relative according to a report just recently released from the Census Bureau (*The Diverse Living Arrangements of Children*, 1994).

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The report also found much variation in living arrangements by race and ethnicity. White children were more likely than African American or Hispanic children to live in a traditional nuclear family (56 percent for white children, 26 percent for African American children, and 38 percent for Hispanic children).

An increasing number of children live with their grandparents. In 1992, 3.3 million grandchildren (five percent of all children under the age of 18) lived in their grandparent's house. This was an increase from 2.3 million in 1980. This does not mean, however, that neither parent is present. More than half of the children living in their grandparent's house also had their mothers living in the household with them. Twenty-seven percent of the children (867,000) living with their grandparents did not have either parent in the house. Fewer children lived with neither parent (nor grandparent) in 1992 than in 1970 (1.7 million and 2.0 million, respectively).

Nearly 900,000 children in 1992 were being raised by their grandparents only.

The demise of the two-parent family and the increases in the number of one-parent families are often topics of discussion. The usual tone of the conversation supports the contention that two-parent families are the preferred situation. It is in many situations. This is not to say, however, that all one-parent families are "dysfunctional" solely because there is just one parent.

The poet, Gwendolyn Brooks, talked recently about the current-media-conveyed perceptions about the African American (she prefers Black) family:

> *"...In the Black community, many long-lasting marriages jog along, jog along. Rarely do these hit the headlines. The headlines are reserved for the teenaged unmarried mother: rarely the manymanymanymany lovely young girls who are clean-willed, cleanly adventurous, warm of heart and clear of spirit, reasonable, sane young girls in love with the ideas of knowledge, good citizenship.*

Indeed, who is to guarantee that such positives have eluded every one of the teenaged unmarried mothers? Incidentally, the loud critics of teenaged unmarried mothers and of one-parent homes are not considering the amount of pain they are lavishing on innocent children who happen to be members of single-parented homes. Are such keen and sly-tongued assessors aware of the permanent harm they are inflicting on these children-or the hot contribution they are making to a loss of self-esteem?...Cheerily ignored is the truth that an impressive percentage of double-parented homes...are hell-holes of sexual abuse, childbeating, wife-battering, bickering, incessant profanity, elegant drug dealing, pornography exposition, racism espousal. Left out of current diatribes are recipes these single mothers really could use...How do you force a man to stay in the home --thus maintaining 'double-parenting?' ...When a husband dies, the home is no longer double-parented. Are the then-fatherless children in that home automatically doomed to failure and moral depravity? Proud double-parented homers on Monday, after the death on Tuesday or Thursday are they to hang their little heads in shame?--in kindergarten?--on the playground?--because they are now dimmed, maimed, permanently demoted citizens of the horror of horrors, the infamous, insecure, ugly disgrace, the SINGLE-PARENTED home.

Franklin Roosevelt experienced a single-parented home. Abraham Lincoln experienced a single-parented home. Angela Lansbury experienced a single-parented home."

Gwendolyn Brooks
excerpted from *Education Week*, May 11, 1994

Perhaps we need to stop focusing on defining the type of family, and start focusing on how parents and society can come together to overcome the economic hardships and emotional stresses confronting today's children. Many children today live in households in which one or two parents work in non-flexible

Perhaps we need to stop focusing on defining the type of family, and start focusing on how parents and society can come together to overcome the economic hardships and emotional stresses confronting today's children.

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environments. After the parent(s) get home from work she/he has the family responsibilities of cooking, shopping and doing laundry. The estimates that suggest that the number of hours per week that children spend with their parents has fallen by one-half since 1964 are not surprising. Children need their parents regardless of the type of family, the level of family income, or the number of parents living in the household.

Stereotype No. 4:
The majority of children whose mothers receive welfare live with many siblings, and their mothers deliberately have more babies to get more welfare money.

It is not true that the majority of children whose mothers receive welfare have large families. The average size of families on welfare in 1992 was 2.9, down from 4.0 in 1970. It is also not true that women deliberately have babies to increase their welfare checks.

The Cadillac may be gone from the stereotype of the "welfare queen," but the image of a young (inevitably mostly minority) mother dependent on welfare, having a baby every year to ensure a larger welfare check continues to fuel public debate and political criticism of the United States' welfare policy.

Recent legislation in New Jersey was motivated in part by the stereotypical image of a young mother having a

NOTE: When most people talk about welfare, they are referring to the program, Aid to Families With Dependent Children (AFDC). AFDC was established by the Social Security Act of 1935 as a cash program to aid needy children who have been deprived of parental support.

baby every year to increase her welfare benefits. The legislation prevents women in the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) program from receiving supplemental payments if they bear another child while on welfare.

The number of children receiving AFDC changed little between 1975 and 1990, then increased slightly between 1990 and 1992 (see Table 7 below). Although both the number of children receiving AFDC, and the number of families with children maintained by women only have been increasing over the last 20 years, studies have shown no correlation at all between the level of benefits and the prevalence of families maintained by women. During the 1980s, when the number of children living in families maintained by women increased, the number of children in AFDC homes held constant.

Table 7
Number of Children Receiving AFDC, Child Recipients as a Percentage of All Children and Children in Poverty Selected Years (1970 -1992)
(numbers in thousands)

Year	AFDC Child Recipients	As a Percent of all Children	As a Percent of Children in Poverty
1970	6,104	8.7	58.5
1975	7,952	11.8	71.6
1980	7,295	11.4	63.2
1985	7,074	11.3	54.4
1990	7,922	12.3	59.0
1992	9,224	13.9	63.1

Source: U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Ways and Means, *Overview of Entitlement Programs, 1994 Green Book*.

Gregory Acs, a researcher at the Urban Institute in Washington, D.C., finds that "mothers who receive AFDC to support their first child are no more likely to have another child than are other young mothers." The truth behind the stereotype is that **the typical family receiving AFDC has about the same number of children as the typical, non-welfare family -- two children.** In 1992, according to federal statistics, nearly three-fourths of all families receiving AFDC nationally had no more than two children. Forty-two percent had just one child and 30 percent had two children. This is a substantial decrease in the size of families receiving AFDC since 1970 when the average size of families was four persons.

Even if women were having babies to increase their welfare checks, rising to the status of "welfare queen" would be difficult, if not impossible, on grants alone. Nationally, the median AFDC grant for a mother and two children is less than $400 a month, or about $4,800 annually. At $13 per day, this is far below the annual $11,186 federal poverty line for a family of three. In addition, there is considerable variation in the amount of the AFDC grant depending upon where the family lives. In January 1994, the maximum AFDC payment for a family of three in Mississippi was $120; and i n Alaska, it was $923; according to federal data.

Furthermore, the amount of money received by AFDC families has been decreasing over the years, according to the House Ways and Means Committee. After adjusting for inflation, the *average* monthly AFDC benefit per family was $676 in 1970 and $373 in 1993, a reduction of 45 percent. Even when combined with food stamps, the maximum total benefit to the family is only 70 percent of the poverty line. Housing assistance provided by the government is not an issue for most families receiving AFDC since only one-fourth of AFDC households receive any housing assistance.

Part of the reason that the stereotype about families receiving welfare is so hard to dispel is that there is not a great deal of focus on the facts. In addition to the data presented above, some of the truth about persons receiving welfare assistance may be surprising:

- In 1992, **of the 13.6 million persons receiving AFDC nationally, 9.2 million were children.** That's about 14

percent of all children nationally. And, even though the number of children living below the poverty level has been increasing, only 63 percent of all poor children receive AFDC.

- **There are more white families receiving AFDC than African American families.** In 1992, 39 percent of all families receiving AFDC were white; 37 percent were African American and 18 percent were Hispanic.

- **Welfare is not a way of life for most recipients.** More than half of all families receiving AFDC leave AFDC within two years, according to the House Ways and Means Committee. More than one-third leave within one year.

- **Six percent of mothers receiving AFDC work and 28 percent are seeking employment, have been laid off, or are in training.** Many of the other mothers are needed at home to care for their children. Finding work and/or job training is a difficult task for most mothers receiving welfare without some additional help with child care expenses.

AFDC is the program that most people have in mind when they complain about skyrocketing welfare costs. The truth is that AFDC, Supplemental Security Income (SSI), Medicaid, and Food Stamps made up just six percent of total federal program outlays in 1990. (Social Security, including Medicare, constituted 28 percent and national defense spending constituted 24 percent.) The fact is that many families who receive welfare grants would be unable to provide for their children if they did not receive assistance from the government. It is also true that many working mothers suffer from gender pay inequity. If their earnings were equal to the earnings of comparably-prepared men, the working mothers might not be poor and might not, therefore, need public assistance.

While there are many things wrong with the welfare program in the United States, from the beginning it was designed to protect children. Yet, it reaches only 63 percent of America's children living below the official poverty level. Many more children who are poor and at risk of not surviving childhood are not being served. It is unlikely that many women in the U.S. are having babies to receive welfare grants of an additional $13 per day from the

government. But, because we are so accustomed to wondering just how "deserving" those who receive welfare grants are, the stereotypes about the "welfare queen" persist.

Stereotype No. 5:
The U. S. is becoming more diverse. Most of the babies born today have parents of different races.

It is true that the United States is becoming more diverse and mixed-race babies are contributing to the diversity. In 1991, however, mixed-race babies made up only three percent of all births.

In 1970, there were 39,012 babies born to mixed-race couples, about one percent of all births (see Figure 5, next page). By 1991, after an increase of more than 200 percent since 1970, there were 127,862 mixed-race babies born, or **three percent of all births**.

The number of mixed-race children is increasing because many more people are comfortable with interracial dating and marriage; it is much more widely accepted now than in previous years. As recently as 1967, interracial marriage was illegal in some states. The 1970 census recorded only 65,000 marriages between African American and whites. Since 1980, the number of African American and white interracial, married couples has increased from 651,000 to 1.2 million. So, too, has the number of mixed African American and white children. In 1970, there were 12,556 African American/white babies born (32 percent of all mixed-race babies). In 1980, there were 25,289; by 1991, there were more than twice as

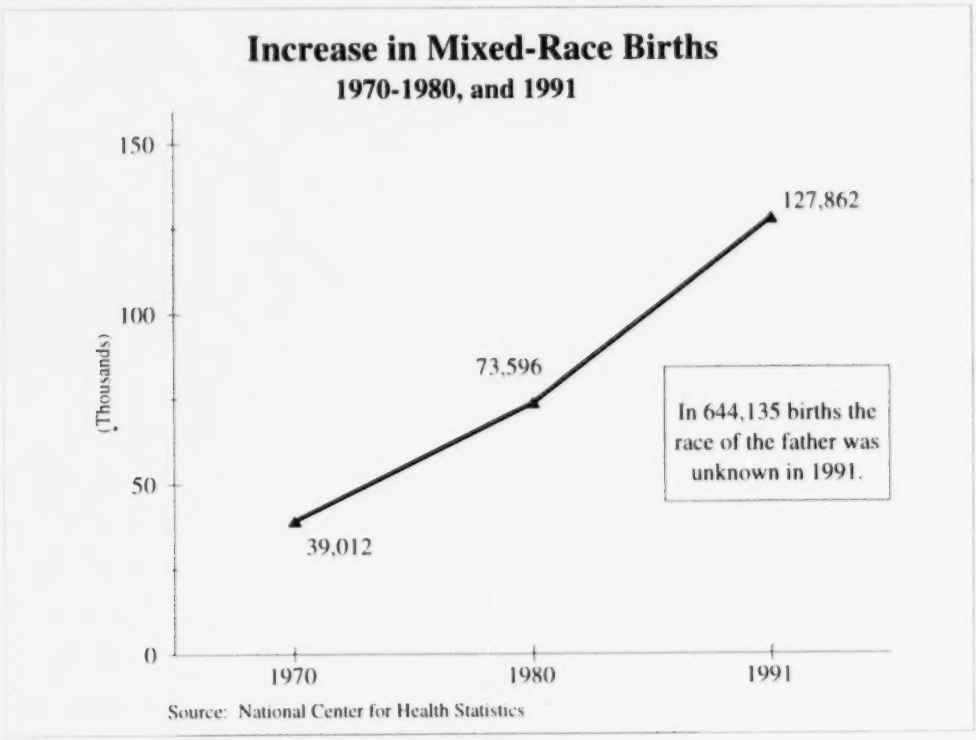

Figure 5

many African American/white babies (52,232, over 40 percent of all mixed-race babies).

The different combinations of mixed-race children add to the statistical complexity of how to categorize increased diversity in the United States. African American and white is not the only group of mixed-race babies increasing (see Table 8, next page). Children of white mothers and "other race" fathers (excluding African American) also increased substantially. For example, in 1970, there were 9,000 babies born to white mothers and "other race" fathers. By 1991, there were over 27,000.

As the data on mixed-race babies show, the diversity within the umbrella label of "mixed-race" is increasing. The largest group of mixed-race babies born in 1991 have white mothers and African American fathers -- over 30 percent of all mixed-race babies born that year. But other combinations of mixed-race parents have also

Table 8
Increase in Mixed-Race Births
1970 and 1991

	1970		1991	
Race	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total Mixed-Race Births*	39,012	100.0	127,862	100.0
White mother/African American father	9,636	24.7	39,865	31.2
African American mother/ white father	2,920	7.5	12,367	9.7
White mother/"other race" father, total (excluding African American father)	9,044	23.2	27,378	21.4
African American mother/"other race" father, total (excluding white father)	432	1.1	1,214	0.9
Other mixed-race births	16,980	43.5	47,038	36.8

*Does not include births for which the race of the father is unknown. **In 1991, there were 644,135 births where the race of the father was unknown, or 16% of all births.**
Source: *American Demographics*, June 1994 and National Center for Health Statistics.

contributed to the overall increase in mixed-race births (see Table 9, on page 33). These children contribute substantially to the increased diversity in the U.S.

There have been major increases in the number of mixed-race births and huge increases in the number of children living in mixed-race families. For example, the number of children living in families where one parent is white and the other is African American, Asian, or American Indian tripled -- from fewer than 400,000 in 1970 to 1.5 million in 1990, and this does not count the children of single parents or children whose parents are divorced. The increase in the number of adoptions of babies from other countries no doubt has contributed to the increase.

Table 9
Mixed-Race Births by Detailed Race of Parents 1991

Race (**mother/father**)	Number	Percent
White/African American	39,865	31.2
African American/white	12,367	9.7
White/"Other race" (excluding African American father)	27,378	21.4
American Indian/white	10,511	8.2
Chinese/white	2,484	1.9
Japanese/white	2,852	2.2
Hawaiian/white	1,109	0.9
Filipino/white	7,656	6.0
Other Asian & Pacific Islander/white	10,679	8.5
Other Races/white	529	0.4
Other groups not shown	12,432	9.7
TOTAL	127,862	100.0

Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

The increase in the number of mixed-race children has added substantially to the increase in the racial diversity in the U.S. Because of this increase, it is not hard to understand the rationale of the critics of current racial categories. They are lobbying hard to add a multi-racial category to census and other federal forms.

Parents of mixed-race school-age children have been especially critical. These parents feel that they need to be represented as a group since the number of mixed-race children in the United States is increasing steadily. "Children need to see themselves represented on the forms," these parents say. The opposition feels that it would dilute the statistical strength of individual groups. And, as individuals in this group of critics ask, "What would we have? The whole United States could fit into a multi-racial category." If this occurs, they argue, then managing affirmative action and other equity programs would be a nightmare.

Why is the United States so concerned with classifying its population by race? Seventeen years ago when the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) set forth Statistical Policy Directive Number 15, "Race and Ethnic Standards for Federal

Statistics and Administrative Reporting," it was for record keeping purposes and for presenting data on race and ethnicity in statistical and program activities. In addition, the data are used for activities such as: enforcing the requirements of the Voting Rights Act, renewing state redistricting plans, establishing and evaluating affirmative action plans, and monitoring and enforcing desegregation plans in schools.

The difference between today and when Directive 15 was established is that the U.S. now has many more racial and ethnic groups and mixed-race children are more common. School systems that use the four racial groups set forth by OMB (Black, White, Asian/Pacific Islander and American Indian) may be following the federal quidelines, but the parents of mixed-race children say that such guidelines deny their children their identity.

So, a major question for the Nineties is: How do we use racial and ethnic data to measure access to programs and still capture the real diversity that exists in th U.S.? "We recognize the importance of racial categories in correcting clear injustices under the law," says U.S. Representative, Thomas Sawyer, chair of the House Subcommittee which oversees the census. "The dilemma we face is trying to assure the fundamental guarantees of equality of opportunity while at the same time recognizing that the populations themselves are changing as we seek to categorize them. Part of the difficulty is that we are dealing with the illusion of precision. We wind up with precise counts of everybody in the country, and they are precisely wrong" (*The New Yorker*, July 25, 1994).

Probably, the most significant aspect about racial classification is that it is based on self-identification -- we are who we say we are -- and we keep changing who we say we are. The statistical headache is how do those of us who need to keep up with this changing population, keep up? Capturing who we are is not going to get any easier.

In Conclusion

What is the value of separating the stereotypes from the facts about America's children? It seems obvious. Knowing the truth about children puts us in a position to make more informed decisions about how we as individuals and as a nation work to ensure that all of our children grow up to be healthy and productive citizens.

This report has examined just five of the stereotypes relating to the conditions of children. If we hold these stereotypes up as fact and act accordingly based on these beliefs, we will cause great harm to our future. We say that children are valued by society because they represent our future. They are the ones who will be tomorrow's leaders, teachers, parents, and service-level workers. Yet, we seem to discount and fear many of them.

The stereotypes emphasized in this report represent just the tip of the iceberg. There are many others that could have been included. For example, consider the issue of weapons, minority children, and inner city schools. When we think or hear about children and weapons, more often we immediately conjure up an image of armed, minority teens in the inner city.

While African American teens are far more likely to be shot to death, white teens are more likely to be injured or killed in an automobile crash, or commit suicide. In 1990, among youths aged 10 to 19, 3,398 were murdered and 2,237 committed suicide. Does the method of death really matter when most could have been prevented? If we really want to help today's youth, should we be concerned only with getting guns out of inner city schools? If we are, we will continue to lose a substantial portion of youth who will die from other preventable causes every year in all kinds of communities.

This report also did not examine the many connections between children and health, an extremely important issue. In many ways, the physical health of America's children has never been better. Many serious illnesses such as diphtheria and polio have been greatly reduced through immunization campaigns. And even

though the infant mortality rate in the U.S. remains higher than in most industrialized countries, it has steadily declined since 1971. In other ways, we have new worries. The number of AIDS deaths and new AIDS cases among children under the age of 13 has increased from 129 in 1985 to 743 in 1992.

The overall health status of the "average" American child is good but there are problems rooted in deep differences among children. Poor children, regardless of race and place of residence, are far more likely not to be immunized against preventable diseases, to be exposed to lead, and to experience poor nutrition. They are also less likely to have health insurance; poor African American and Hispanic children are at an even greater risk.

Children who are born in and raised in the United States today differ from those of earlier decades on a variety of demographic indicators. The stereotypes discussed in this report have highlighted only a few of the differences:

- First, children make up a smaller part of the population. When they reach working age, there will be relatively few of them available to support the growing number of nonworking elderly and future generations of children. As recently as 1970, there were 347 children under age 18 for every 100 persons over age 65. Today, there are less than 200. By the year 2030, as the older population continues to grow faster than the younger, there will be nearly equal numbers of American children and elderly, according to the Population Reference Bureau.

- More of today's children grow up in different family living arrangements than in the past. For many children, their "family," be it a single mother, single father, both parents, or grandparent, is a functional intact family. Our focus needs to be less on how to define the family and more on how to help families maintain economic and emotional stability.

- Welfare may not be an ideal program, but the fact remains that few people abuse the program. For many children and their families, welfare is the difference between surviving and not surviving. We must work to make it more effective.

- An increasing number of babies have mothers who were not married at the time of their births. These are mothers of all races, not just women of color. What can we do for the increasing number of babies who will grow up without their fathers and what can we do for the increasing number of single mothers whose earnings can not keep them and their offspring living above the poverty level?

- Poverty today is a growing problem for America's children. It is a problem for inner city, suburban and rural children. How can we eliminate child poverty regardless of where children live?

It is incumbent upon each of us to separate stereotypes from facts. We have to constantly ask ourselves what is the truth? If today's children are going to have improved life chances, then there must be an increased commitment of the public (those with children and those without). Our children are our future. The policies we make and the programs we implement to support, strengthen, and enhance the lives of children cannot be based on stereotypes and myths. We owe it to them to increase our understanding by getting the facts.

APPENDIX I:

ADDITIONAL STEREOTYPES AND MYTHS ABOUT CHILDREN IN THE U.S.

ADDITIONAL STEREOTYPES AND MYTHS ABOUT CHILDREN IN THE U.S.

(to use in your own communities)

What are the facts?

1. *The number of "latchkey" children is increasing. However, children living in the suburbs are less likely than children living in the inner city or suburbs to be home alone.*

2. *The majority of disadvantaged children get some help starting out by participating in Head Start.*

3. *It costs too much money to provide a free education to immigrant children most of whom are illegal anyway.*

4. *The health status of children in the U.S. is better than ever.*

5. *The health and education needs of minority and/or poor children are different from the needs of white/or middle class children.*

6. *African American youth are far less likely to complete high school than any other racial or ethnic group.*

7. *Two-thirds of AFDC recipients are children.*

8. *Child care assistance is available to working families that need it. They just have to look for it.*

9. *Guns and gang-related activity are a problem in inner cities. These issues haven't gotten to rural areas.*

10. *Teenage drinking and driving is a white suburban problem.*

APPENDIX II:

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF CHILDREN IN THE UNITED STATES

Demographic Profile of America's Children		
POPULATION	**Number**	**Percent/Rate**
Total Population under age 18/ Percent of total population, 1992	66,179,000	25.9
Population, 1990	63,606,000	25.6
Population, 1980	63,755,000	28.1
Population, 1970	77,020,000	37.8
Number of Children under age 5/ Percent of total population, 1992	19,512,000	7.7
Number of Children age 5-17/ Percent of total population, 1992	46,655,000	18.3
Number of Minority Children under age 18/ Percent of all Children under age 18	16,797,000	31.1
Number of Immigrant Children, 1990/ Percent of all Children	5,100,000	8.0
RACE AND ETHNICITY		
White/As a percent of all Children	52,768,000	79.7
African American/Percent of all Children	10,241,000	15.5
Asian/Percent of all Children	2,427,000	3.7
American Indian/Percent of all Children	763,000	1.2
Hispanic (of any race)	8,537,000	12.9
VITAL STATISTICS		
Infant Mortality Rate, 1991 (per 1,000 live births)		8.9
Teen Violent Death Rate, 1991 (ages 15-19, per 100,000 persons)		71.1
Mortality Rate for Children by Cause (per 100,000 persons):		
Motor Vehicle Accidents (ages 5-24)		37.6
Suicide, 1991 (age 5-24)		13.8
Homicide and Legal Intervention, 1991		23.8
EDUCATION		
Persons age 3 and over enrolled in Preprimary through High School, 1992	47,870,000	

Number of Children enrolled in Public School/ Percent of total enrolled	42,496,000	89.0
Percent of Population Age 16-19 who are Not in School, Not Employed, High School Graduate, & Not in Armed Forces, 1990		8.9
Number of Children who are enrolled in Headstart, 1991	507,317	
Education of Householder with Children, 1993:		
Did not complete High School		31.0
High School Graduate, No College		11.0
Some College		6.0
College Graduate		3.0
LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION		
Women in Labor Force with Children under age 6, 1992/Percent of all women with children under age 6		66.7
SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS		
Number of Children reported to be Abused and Neglected, 1991	2,700,000	
Percent of Children reported to suffer:		
Neglect		43.8
Physical Abuse		24.4
Sexual Abuse		15.5
Emotional Abuse		5.9
Other		8.3
Medical Neglect		2.1
Number of Children under age 18 not covered by Health Insurance, 1991/Percent of all children	8,382,000	12.7
Number of Immigrant Families living below the poverty line/Percent of all immigrant families	876,281	21.0
Number of Alcohol Treatment Admissions for Children under age 18, 1991	60,508	
Number of Drug Treatment Admissions for Children under age 18, 1991	74,507	

Number of Children who lived with a Grandparent without a Parent present, 1991/Percent of all children	867,000	1.3
Percent of Children estimated to be Homeless, 1992		22.0
Number of Children who were Runaways, 1988	446,700	
Number of Children estimated to be in Foster Care, 1992	442,000	
Incidence of Children in Foster Care, 1990 (per 1,000 Children)		5.9
CRIME		
Juvenile Violent Crime Arrest Rates for Children ages 10-17 (per 100,000 youths), 1991		457

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, National Institute of Health Statistics, National Center for Education Statistics, *Digest of Education, 1993, 1994 Green Book, The Challenge of Change, Child Welfare Stat Book, Kids Count, 1994* and *Beyond Rhetoric.*

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SELECTED PUBLICATIONS FROM

THE INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP, INC.
CENTER FOR DEMOGRAPHIC POLICY

CONNECTICUT: NEW DREAMS FROM OLD REALITIES, by Harold L. Hodgkinson

This updated report of Connecticut, examines the state's progress between 1980 and 1990 (and through 1993 when available). Profiles of the cities of Bridgeport, Hartford, New Haven, Stamford, and Waterbury, are also presented. The author also relates education data and issues to those of health care, jobs and income, family structure, poverty, social welfare and other sources.

1994 • 62 pp. • $12.00

THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF MICHIGAN AND SELECTED AREAS: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL REFORM, by Harold L. Hodgkinson and Janice Hamilton Outtz with the assistance of Anita Massey Obarakpor

This report represents the third time the Institute for Educational Leadership's Center for Demographic Policy has focussed it's attention on the demographics of Michigan. *The Demographics of Michigan and Selected Areas* inlcudes data from the 1990 census as well as more recent data. The demographic profiles, presented at the state, county and city level, focus on the cities of Battle Creek, Detroit, Flint, Lansing and Pontiac; and Alger, Marquette and Muskegon Counties.

1994 • 99 pp. • $25.00

IMMIGRATION TO AMERICA: THE ASIAN EXPERIENCE by Harold L. Hodgkinson with Anita Massey Obarakpor

Immigration is the hot topic of the Nineties. This report gives both the context of America's immigration policies and practices as it has related to Asian Americans. It also provides a demographic portrait which examines the diversity of Asian Americans.

1994 • 32 pp. • $12.00

THE INVISIBLE POOR: RURAL YOUTH IN AMERICA by Harold L. Hodgkinson with the assistance of Anita Massey Obarakpor

This comprehensive report tells us what is known about rural populations in the United States and discusses a variety of issues such as family structure, job availability, education and health care, that are relevant to rural youth poverty. The main point of the report is to stress that "rural poverty is not urban poverty in a rural setting." It has a different face than that of urban poverty and it is harder to escape.

1994 • 25 pp. • $12.00

SELECTED PUBLICATIONS, continued

AGAINST THEIR WILLS: CHILDREN BORN AFFECTED BY DRUGS by Harold L. Hodgkinson and Janice Hamilton Outtz

Damaged by the drugs their mothers took during pregnancy, hundreds of thousands of children are making up a generation of American children and it is costing millions of dollars to help them. The authors of a new report on children born affected by drugs, particularly crack cocaine, tell us "what is known and not known" about this growing population.

1993 • 20 pp. • $10.00

THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF AMERICAN FAMILIES by Janice Hamilton Outtz

"Families aren't what they used to be, but they are still families." Most Americans live in some type of "family" living arrangements. *Ozzie and Harriet, The Waltons*, and the *Cleavers* in *Leave it to Beaver*, have been replaced by *The Cosbys, Murphy Brown*, and *The Tanner's* in *Full House*. A new report from the Institute for Educational Leadership's Center for Demographic Policy, says that "families are diverse." The report, written by the Co-Director, Janice Hamilton Outtz, was sponsored by the Milken Institute for Job and Capital Formation.

The author uses census and other data to examine how families have changed over the last several decades. Included are data on types of families: step-families, two-earner, single-parent; living arrangements of children; and families in poverty. Many families are doing well, but some are struggling. Just because the family is different, does not mean that it is bad, or that it is dysfunctional. According to Outtz, "we must recognize the diversity of American families as well as the complexities surrounding the needs of this diverse group."

1993 • 24 pp. • $12.00

FLORIDA'S YOUTH, FLORIDA'S FUTURE and **TEXAS' YOUTH AND TEXAS' FUTURE**

These reports are special analyses of the education and health care systems in Florida and Texas. The reports present demographic trends concerning children and families in each state with a special emphasis on at-risk children. The reports were commissioned by the National Health/Education Consortium.

1993 • $12.00

THE NATION AND THE STATES: A PROFILE AND DATA BOOK OF AMERICA'S DIVERSITY, by Harold L. Hodgkinson and Janice Hamilton Outtz with the assistance of Anita M. Obarakpor

Data are provided on more than 50 indicators for all 50 states and the District of Columbia. Indicators include: demographic, economic, social, housing, education, health, transportation and environmental issues. The report shows how states differ on selected indicators and the relationship between demographic changes. The data allow states to develop their own "recipe" of resources to be maximally effective in reducing the number of children who are at risk of not fulfilling their potential.

1992 • 57 pp. • $12.00

SELECTED PUBLICATIONS, continued

A DEMOGRAPHIC LOOK AT TOMORROW, by Harold "Bud" Hodgkinson

Using recent data from the 1990 census, the author has provided a terse but comprehensive look at what the U.S. population will look like in the years to come. He has examined national trends and their relation to changes in regions and states. The author also takes a look at "the most obvious inequities in 1992 between the inner city and the surrounding suburbs." This report calls attention to how things have been happening at the extremes: more rapid growth in suburbs and declines in inner cities and rural areas; more high school dropouts and more prisoners; declines in the "traditional" family and rapid increases in households without married couples; future declines in the number of white youth and increases in the number of nonwhite youth; and uneven minority distribution throughout the nation.

1992 • 19 pp. • $12.00

CDP DEMOGRAPHICS FOR DECISIONMAKERS NEWSLETTER,
Janice Hamilton Outtz, Editor

Major shifts have occurred in the U.S. population: half of the population live in only nine states; 82 percent of all children have working mothers; and racial and ethnic minorities are increasing seven times faster than non-Hispanic whites. This quarterly newsletter identifies demographic trends that make evident the need for collaboration among diverse organizations in both the public and private sectors. Whether you are providing services, planning programs or just trying to understand how things are changing, this newsletter will make your decisionmaking job easier. **For $250 annually to organizations or $75 to individuals**, it is a cost effective-way to keep abreast of major demographic issues.

UNDERSTANDING DEMOGRAPHY: A MANUAL, by Janice Hamilton Outtz

This manual provides information about obtaining demographic data and applying that information to help resolve problems. It is designed to help current and future policymakers understand demographics and the implications of demographic change and to enable them to use demographic data as an integral part of their strategic thinking and policy actions. Included are tips on getting the information you want, terms you should know and sources.

1992 • 26 pp • $10.00

THE SAME CLIENT: THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF EDUCATION AND SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEMS, by Harold "Bud" Hodgkinson

"Educators at all levels need to begin to become familiar with other service providers at their level, as they are serving the same children and families as clients. It is painfully clear that a hungry, sick or homeless child is by definition a poor learner, yet schools usually have no linkage to health or housing organizations outside those run by the schools themselves, "states Hodgkinson. This report calls for collaboration between organizations providing services in the areas of education, transportation, health, housing and corrections.

1989 • 28 pp. • 12.00

SELECTED PUBLICATIONS, continued

DEMOGRAPHIC STATE PROFILES

Dr. Hodgkinson has written reports at the state, region and county level which focus on demographic trends confronting state and local-level policy makers. **The reports are $7.00 each** and available for: Arizona; Arkansas; California; Southern California; Colorado; Connecticut; Delaware; Fairfax County, VA; Florida; Illinois; Indiana; Jefferson County, KY; Kentucky; Michigan; Michigan: Emphasis on Detroit; Minnesota; Students At Risk: A Focus on Three Minnesota Counties; New York; Ohio; Pennsylvania; South Carolina; Texas; Virginia; Washington; and Wyoming.

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